



## Short communication

# Ruthenium oxide modified titanium dioxide nanotube arrays as carbon and binder free lithium–air battery cathode catalyst



Guangyu Zhao, Yanning Niu, Li Zhang, Kening Sun\*

Academy of Fundamental and Interdisciplinary Sciences, Harbin Institute of Technology, Harbin, Heilongjiang 150080, PR China

## H I G H L I G H T S

- Carbon and binder free Li–O<sub>2</sub> battery cathodes constructed by a bottom-up method.
- RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst on a stable TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube array catalyst support.
- More than 100 cycle charge/discharge.

## A R T I C L E I N F O

## Article history:

Received 14 April 2014

Received in revised form

12 June 2014

Accepted 17 July 2014

Available online 24 July 2014

## Keywords:

Lithium–air battery

Cathode

Carbon and binder free

Ruthenium oxide catalyst

Titanium dioxide nanotube array

## A B S T R A C T

RuO<sub>2</sub> modified TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays, growing on Ti foams, are used as carbon and binder free cathodes for Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries. The micrometer pores in Ti foams and nanometer pores in TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes supply facilitated transport channels for oxygen diffusing into/out of the catalysts in discharge and charge processes. The RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst exhibits outstanding catalytic active toward oxygen evolution reaction (OER), which leads the charge voltage maintaining around 3.7 V all through the battery cycling. The stability of TiO<sub>2</sub>/Ti support, abundant oxygen transport path and favorable catalytic activity of RuO<sub>2</sub> toward OER enable the Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries exhibiting 130 cycle discharge/charge.

© 2014 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

## 1. Introduction

RuO<sub>2</sub> has attracted great interest as cathode catalyst for Li–air batteries by its favorable electron conductivity and good catalytic activity towards oxygen evolution reaction (OER). Various carbon materials, such as reduced graphene [1], carbon black [2] and carbon nanotubes [3,4] supported RuO<sub>2</sub> were implemented as oxygen cathodes of Li–air batteries, which exhibited high round-trip efficiency and outstanding catalytic ability. The most attractive characteristic is the low charge voltages of these batteries, about 3.7 V vs. Li<sup>+</sup>/Li, much lower than those catalyzed by carbon materials only. The low charge voltage should be attributed to the strong catalytic ability of RuO<sub>2</sub> to OER. Ryung Byon and his coworkers [4] suggested that, RuO<sub>2</sub> contribute to the formation of poorly crystalline Li<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> coated over the catalyst with large contact area during

oxygen reduction reaction. Then this unique Li<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> structure could be smoothly decomposed at low potential upon OER by avoiding the energy loss associated with the decomposition of the more typical Li<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> structure with a large size, small contact area, and insulating crystals. However, all the studies mentioned above still used carbon materials as catalyst support and implemented conventional air cathode preparation approach, that mixing catalysts with conductive carbons and organic binders then pasting on the porous metal current collectors. Unfortunately, both carbon materials and organic binders have been reported degrading in Li–air batteries [5–11], which causes the instability of Li–air batteries' cathodes, harming batteries' rechargeability. Accordingly, the exploration of carbon and binder free cathodes is urgent for Li–air batteries [12–14].

TiO<sub>2</sub> is an attractive support material for catalyst, because it is stable, environmentally friendly and biocompatible [15–19]. Recently, Bruce and his co-workers [20] reported that, the stability of the TiO<sub>2</sub>-rich surface layer present on the Li–air batteries' cathodes is responsible for the stable and reversible Li<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> formation/decomposition. Therefore, TiO<sub>2</sub> is a good candidate for catalyst

\* Corresponding author. Tel./fax: +86 451 86412153.

E-mail addresses: [zhaogy810525@gmail.com](mailto:zhaogy810525@gmail.com) (G. Zhao), [keningsunhit@126.com](mailto:keningsunhit@126.com) (K. Sun).

support of Li–air battery cathode. In various TiO<sub>2</sub> materials, nanotubes have drawn considerable attention, because of their large specific surface area and abundant mass transport channels. [21] The large surface area can supply abundant sites to accommodate Li<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> precipitate. Moreover, the straight channels in the nanotubes are beneficial for oxygen transport, enhancing rechargeability and cyclability of Li–air batteries. [22] In present study, we fabricate TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays on Ti foams, and use the foams as substrates for Li–O<sub>2</sub> battery cathodes. Then RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst is deposited on TiO<sub>2</sub> support directly by electrodeposition, avoiding using any organic binder. The RuO<sub>2</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> cathodes exhibit good catalytic activity towards OER and enable the batteries exhibiting outstanding cycle performances.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Sample preparation

The TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays were fabricated directly on circular titanium foam plates (thickness 0.5 mm, diameter 15 mm, 99.2% purity) using anodic oxidation. The Ti plates were initially sonicated in acetone, rinsed with pure water, and then etched in 5% HF for 2 min to remove any oxides from the surface. The etched Ti plate was then submerged in a two-electrode cell containing dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) + 2 wt% HF and was electrochemically treated via anodization at 20 V for 3 h. The as-anodized plates were washed with deionized water for depositing RuO<sub>2</sub>. RuO<sub>2</sub> was deposited on anodized Ti foams by electrodeposition, which was carried out by cyclic voltammogram (CV) in a potential window of –0.8–2.0 V (vs. SCE) with a scan rate of 50 mV s<sup>–1</sup> using a CHI 660 electrochemical analyzer. The anodized Ti foams were used as working electrode, a 1 cm × 1 cm Pt plate electrode was used as counter electrode, and SCE was used as reference electrode. The electrolyte for electrodeposition was consisted of 10 mM RuCl<sub>3</sub> and 1.2 mM HCl. In the CV process, Ru<sup>3+</sup> ions were reduced to metal Ru on the anodized Ti foams in cathodic process, and the Ru metal was oxidized to RuO<sub>2</sub> in the subsequent anodic process [23]. The generated RuO<sub>2</sub> could not be reduced in the following cathodic process. Therefore, the sweeping caused the RuO<sub>2</sub> growing on the anodized Ti foams [24]. The as-deposited plates were washed, dried and annealed in an oven at 650 °C for 3 h. The weights of the deposited product were measured on a micro-balance (Mettler Toledo) with an accuracy of 0.01 mg. The RuO<sub>2</sub> loading amount on a plate was about 0.1 mg. The RuO<sub>2</sub> modified TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube array coated Ti foams in this study is abbreviated as “RTT” in the following text.

### 2.2. Instruments for characterization

Scanning electron microscope (SEM) images were obtained on a Hitachi Su-8100. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were

obtained on a PANalytical X'pert PRO X-ray diffractometer with Cu K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$ ). X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) were obtained with a K-Alpha electron spectrometer (ThermoFisch Scientific Company) using Al K $\alpha$  (1486.6 eV) radiation. The base pressure was about  $1 \times 10^{-8}$  mbar. The binding energies were referenced to the C1s line at 284.8 eV from adventitious carbon.

### 2.3. Li–O<sub>2</sub> battery tests

The Swagelok type Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries were assembled inside an MBraun glove box. The cells were constructed by placing a 15 mm diameter Li disk on the bottom, covering it with a piece of glass fiber separator (20 mm diameter, Whatman), adding excessive electrolyte (1.0 M LiTFSI in tetraethylene glycol dimethyl ether (TEGDME)), placing an air electrode disk on the separator, and sealing the Swagelok cell. All the electrochemical measurements on the batteries were carried out in pure O<sub>2</sub> at 1 atm (99.99%). A BTS-2000 Neware Battery Testing System was employed for charge/discharge tests. For comparison, electrochemical measurements of super P carbon material were also studied as the Li–O<sub>2</sub> battery cathode catalyst. The battery assembling process was consistent with above, except the cathodes were prepared with a conventional carbon based air cathode preparation method. The details are mixing super P with the solution (10 wt%) of Polyvinylidene Fluoride (PVDF) containing N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) in a weight ratio of carbon: PVDF = 4: 6, pasting the obtained homogeneous mixture on circular Cu foam plates (with diameter of 15 mm and thickness of 0.5 mm), drying the plates in a vacuum oven for 24 h on 120 °C. The dry plates were applied as the cathodes of Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries.

## 3. Results and discussion

The SEM images of pristine Ti foams are shown in Fig. 1. The Ti foams are fabricated by hot briquetting from small Ti sands, and commonly used as the filtration devices for air/water treatment. The interspace between the Ti sands endows the Ti foams good gas/liquid permeability, which causes it attractive current collector for Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries. Certainly, the outstanding stability of Ti metal compared with Al, Fe, Cu, Ni and the other common current collectors is another reason, that we choose it as the cathode substrate [25]. The SEM images of anodized Ti foams are shown in Fig. 2. Fig. 2(a) and (b) are the vertical views of the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays, which demonstrate close packing of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes, free-standing on the Ti substrates. The tube diameter is about 150 nm, and the tube wall is about 20 nm, as seen in Fig. 2(a). The bottom views of the films in Fig. 2(c) and (d) also exhibit close packing morphology of the nanotubes. Fig. 3(a) and (b) are the SEM images of the nanotube arrays deposited with RuO<sub>2</sub>, demonstrating the nanoparticle morphology with several decade nanometers on the tube

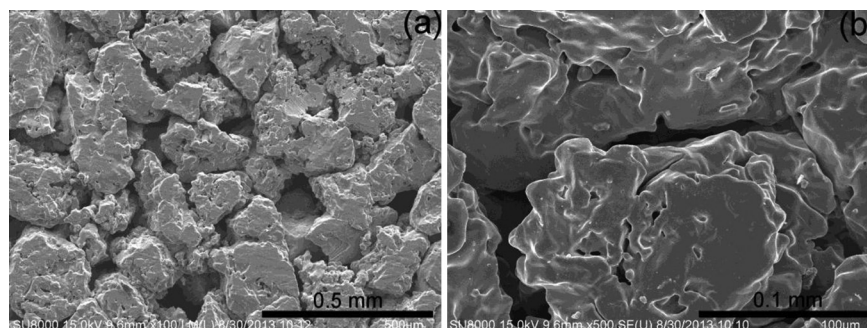


Fig. 1. SEM images of Ti foams.

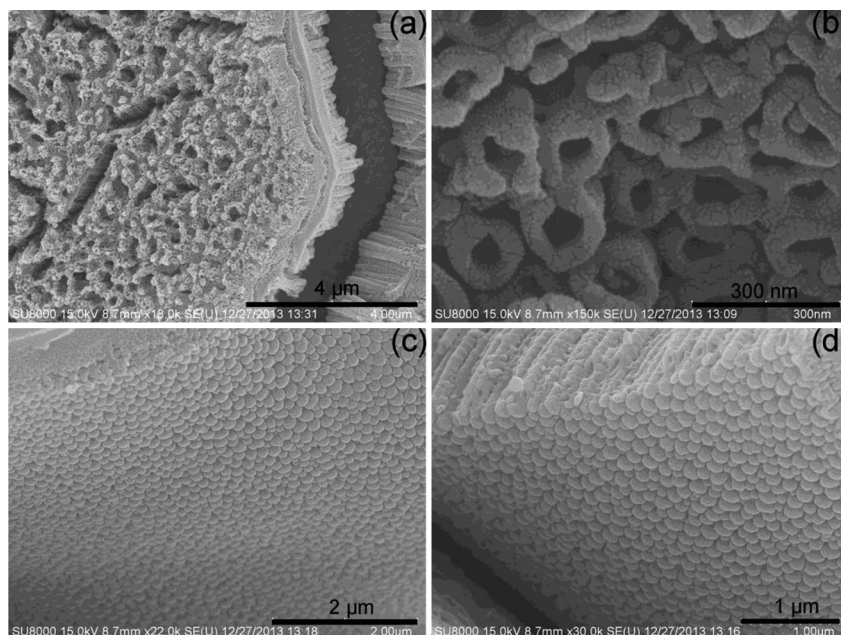


Fig. 2. SEM images of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotube arrays: (a, b) vertical views; (c, d) bottom views.

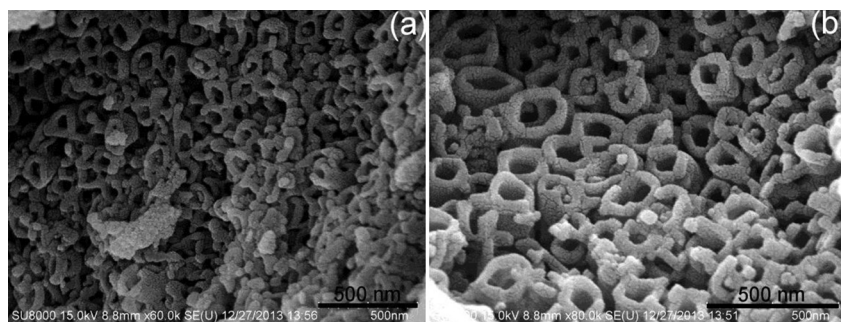


Fig. 3. SEM images of the as-prepared  $\text{RuO}_2$  modified  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotube arrays electrodes.

walls. The XRD pattern of the RTT in Fig. 4 illustrates that, the  $\text{TiO}_2$  is an anatase (JCPDS: 21-1272) and rutile (JCPDS: 21-1276) hybrid crystal form, resulted from the high sinter temperature. Although the  $650^\circ\text{C}$  sinter temperature can ensure  $\text{RuO}_2$  generating, its small

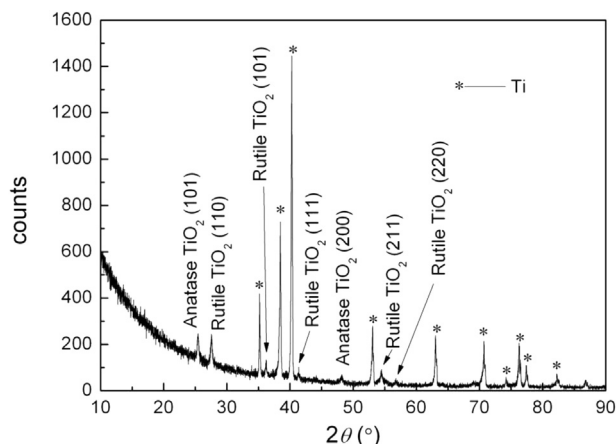


Fig. 4. XRD pattern of RTT electrodes.

amount compared with Ti and  $\text{TiO}_2$  causes its peaks not detectable in the XRD pattern. However, the XPS results reveal the existence of  $\text{RuO}_2$  on the electrode surface unambiguously. Fig. 5(a) and (b) are the high resolution patterns of Ti 2p and Ru 3d of the as-prepared plates, respectively. The Ti 2p peak can be assigned to  $\text{TiO}_2$  (Binding energy = 458.7 eV), and the Ru 3d peak can be assigned to  $\text{RuO}_2$  (Binding energy = 281.5 eV) primarily.

The discharge/charge curves of the Li– $\text{O}_2$  batteries at  $1.77 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  with the RTT as cathodes are presented in Fig. 6. The discharge/charge curves of the batteries with super P using a current density of  $1 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  are shown in Fig. S1. Obviously, the battery exhibits a much lower capacity ( $220 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ ) than that with RTT cathode, despite using a lower discharge/charge current density on the former battery. Furthermore, the battery with super P behaves larger overpotentials both in discharge and charge processes (2.3 V and 3.9 V, respectively) compared with RTT catalyzed battery on a  $1.77 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  current density (Fig. 6), although the former battery is operated with a lower current density. By the way, the battery with super P even cannot run to release any capacity under the current density of  $1.77 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  in our experiments. The XPS results of the discharged RTT cathodes demonstrate that, the discharge product is  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}_2$ , as seen in Fig. 7, consistent with that of carbon based cathodes [26,27]. Fig. 7 shows the Li 1s XPS pattern of the cathodes after



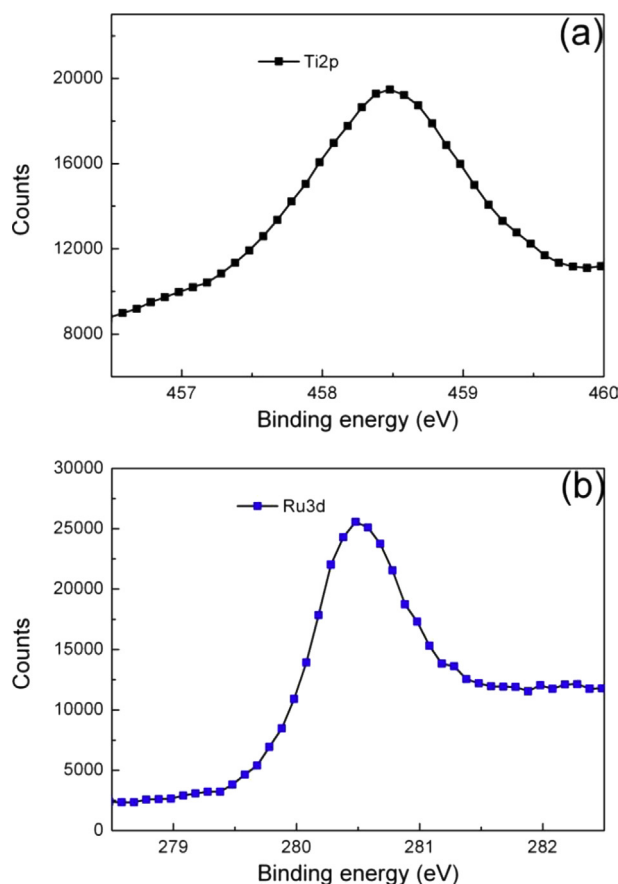


Fig. 5. High resolution XPS patterns of Ti 2p and Ru 3d on the RTT electrodes.

discharge, from which it can be concluded that lithium oxides appear to be formed as the dominant discharge product of the electrochemical reactions. Based on the previous results on the discharged sample using the same electrolyte, [28] the peak (55.5 eV for Li 1s) can be assigned to  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}_2$ . Unfortunately, the batteries with RTT exhibit unsatisfying rate performances that, the overpotentials increase sharply as the discharge/charge current rising to  $3.5 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ , as seen in Fig. 6. We suggest the unfavorable overpotentials at higher current resulting from the poor supply

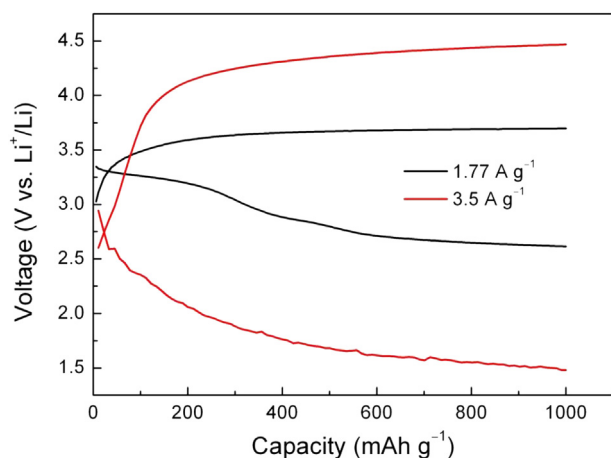


Fig. 6. Discharge/charge curves of the Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries with RTT at the current density of 1.77 and  $3.5 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  with the capacity limitation of  $1000 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ .

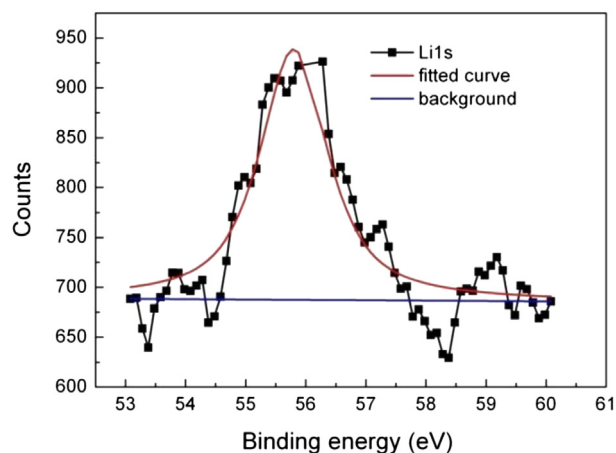


Fig. 7. High resolution XPS pattern of Li 1s on the RTT cathodes after discharge.

capability of oxygen. However, the outstanding stability of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and the good catalytic activity of  $\text{RuO}_2$  to OER enable the batteries exhibiting excellent rechargeability and cycle performances at the current of  $1.77 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ . The battery cycles 130 times with the current density of  $1.77 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  under  $1000 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$  capacity limitation, as seen in Fig. 8. The 1st, 50th and 100th discharge/charge curves and the time dependent discharge/charge curves of the Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries are shown in Fig. S2 and 3. The XRD pattern of the RTT after discharge/charge test has been shown in Fig. S4. The presence of  $\text{TiO}_2$  peaks reveals that,  $\text{TiO}_2$  can maintain stable in the operation conditions of Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries. The stability of  $\text{TiO}_2$  in Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries has been also reported in the literatures [20,25]. These results all demonstrate the batteries behaving superior cyclability. We suggest that, the superior cycle performances result from the good catalyzing OER ability and the facilitated oxygen transport channel. Although the discharge voltage fades with the cycle number obviously, the charge voltage still maintains around 3.7 V, as seen in Fig. 9. The outstanding catalytic ability of  $\text{RuO}_2$  to the OER lets the precipitate of discharge product decomposing well in the charge processes, which leads the catalyst surface reproducible in the whole cycle test. Otherwise, the interspace with micrometers in the Ti foams and the macropores with one hundred nanometers in the  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotubes combine to form facilitated oxygen transport channels in the RTT cathodes, which guarantee the discharge/charge processes harming by the oxygen diffusion polarization in a

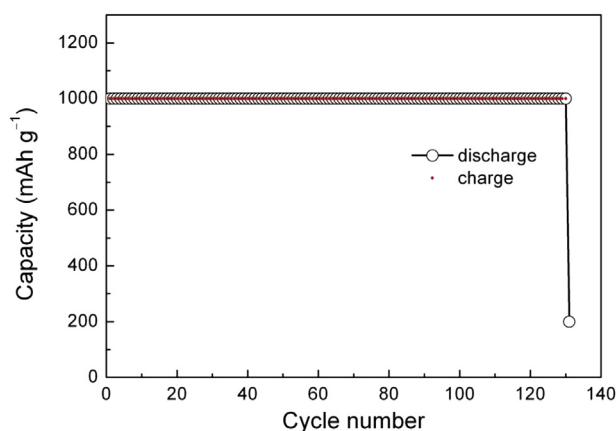
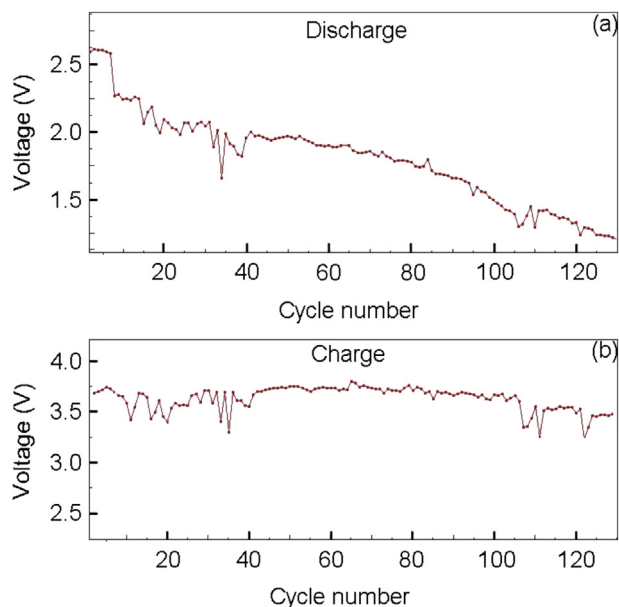


Fig. 8. Cycle performance of the Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries with RTT at the current density of  $1.77 \text{ A g}^{-1}$  and the capacity limitation of  $1000 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ .



**Fig. 9.** The discharge and charge end voltage depending on cycle number of the Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries with RTT at the current density of 1.77 A g<sup>−1</sup> and the capacity limitation of 1000 mAh g<sup>−1</sup>.

minimum. These two characteristics endow the cathodes excellent performances in the charge processes by two improvements, the speed of electrode reaction and mass transport.

#### 4. Conclusion

To avoid harming from the decomposition of carbon materials and organic binders, the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays coated Ti foams are used as the cathode catalyst support for Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries in present study. The stability of Ti metal and TiO<sub>2</sub> in the Li–O<sub>2</sub> battery operation conditions guarantees the cathodes having not decomposition and other side reactions, which are the prime negative factors harming the batteries' rechargeability. On the other hand, the macropores in the Ti foams and the straight channel in the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes supply the cathodes facilitated oxygen transport path in the discharge/charge processes. This porous architecture can improve the rechargeability of Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries, by leading oxygen diffusing to/out of the catalyst easily. RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst is deposited on the support by an electrodeposition assistant method, forming a carbon and binder free cathode for Li–O<sub>2</sub> batteries. The battery test results reveal that, RuO<sub>2</sub> has good catalytic activity toward OER, which leads the charge voltage retaining around 3.7 V after hundred cycles. The favorable OER catalytic ability and the facilitated oxygen transport channels of the RTT cathodes enable the batteries exhibiting excellent cycle performances.

#### Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the National Science Foundation of China (NSFC) (No. 21203044) and Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (No. HIT. IBSSEM. A. 201407).

#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jpowsour.2014.07.112>.

#### References

- [1] H.-G. Jung, Y.S. Jeong, J.-B. Park, Y.-K. Sun, B. Scrosati, Y.J. Lee, *ACS Nano* 4 (2013) 3532–3539.
- [2] B. Sun, P. Munroe, G. Wang, *Sci. Rep.* 3 (2013) 2247–2253.
- [3] Z. Jian, P. Liu, F. Li, P. He, X. Guo, M. Chen, H. Zhou, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* 53 (2014) 442–446.
- [4] E. Yilmaz, C. Yogi, K. Yamanaka, T. Ohta, H.R. Byon, *Nano Lett.* 13 (2013) 4679–4684.
- [5] M.M.O. Thotiyl, S.A. Freunberger, Z. Peng, P.G. Bruce, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 135 (2013) 494–500.
- [6] Z. Peng, S.A. Freunberger, Y. Chen, P.G. Bruce, *Science* 337 (2012) 563–566.
- [7] D.M. Itkis, D.A. Semenenko, E.Yu Kataev, A.I. Belova, V.S. Neudachina, A.P. Sirotnina, M. Hävecker, D. Teschner, A. Knop-Gericke, P. Dudin, A. Barinov, E.A. Goodilin, S.-H. Yang, L.V. Yashina, *Nano Lett.* 13 (2013) 4697–4701.
- [8] R. Younesi, M. Hahlin, M. Treskow, J. Scheers, P. Johansson, K. Edström, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 116 (2012) 18597–18604.
- [9] W. Xu, V.V. Viswanathan, D.Y. Wang, S.A. Towne, J. Xiao, Z.M. Nie, D.H. Hu, J.G. Zhang, *J. Power Sources* 196 (2011) 3894–3899.
- [10] R. Black, S.H. Oh, J.H. Lee, T. Yim, B. Adams, L.F. Nazar, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 134 (2012) 2902–2905.
- [11] E. Nasybulin, W. Xu, M.H. Engelhard, Z. Nie, X.S. Li, J.-G. Zhang, *J. Power Sources* 243 (2013) 899–907.
- [12] A. Riaz, K.-N. Jung, W. Chang, S.-B. Lee, T.-H. Lim, S.-J. Park, R.-H. Song, S. Yoon, K.-H. Shin, J.-W. Lee, *Chem. Commun.* 49 (2013) 5984–5986.
- [13] F. Li, D.-M. Tang, Y. Chen, D. Golberg, H. Kitaura, T. Zhang, A. Yamada, H. Zhou, *Nano Lett.* 13 (2013) 4702–4707.
- [14] X. Hu, X. Han, Y. Hu, F. Cheng, J. Chen, *Nanoscale* 6 (2014) 3522–3525.
- [15] H. Zhou, L. Liu, K. Yin, S.L. Liu, G.X. Li, *Electrochem. Commun.* 8 (2006) 1168–1172.
- [16] X.W. Li, G.C. Wang, X.X. Li, D.M. Lu, *Appl. Surf. Sci.* 229 (2004) 395–401.
- [17] Q.T. Vu, M. Pavlik, N. Hebestreit, U. Rammelt, W. Plieth, J. Pflieger, *React. Funct. Polym.* 65 (2005) 69–77.
- [18] J.C. Xu, W.M. Liu, H.L. Li, *Mater. Sci. Eng. C* 25 (2005) 444–447.
- [19] A. Dey, S. De, A. De, S.K. De, *Nanotechnology* 15 (2004) 1277–1283.
- [20] M.M.O. Thotiyl, S.A. Freunberger, Z. Peng, Y. Chen, Z. Liu, P.G. Bruce, *Nat. Mater.* 12 (2013) 1050–1056.
- [21] M. Tian, G. Wu, A. Chen, *ACS Catal.* 2 (2012) 425–432.
- [22] G. Zhao, Z. Xu, K. Sun, *J. Mater. Chem. A* 1 (2013) 12862–12867.
- [23] C.C. Hu, K.H. Chang, M.C. Lin, Y.T. Wu, *Nano Lett.* 6 (2006) 2690–2695.
- [24] C.C. Hu, Y.H. Huang, *J. Electrochem. Soc.* 146 (1999) 2465–2471.
- [25] G. Zhao, R. Mo, B. Wang, L. Zhang, Kening Sun, *Chem. Mater.* 26 (2014) 2551–2556.
- [26] H.-D. Lim, K.-Y. Park, H. Song, E.Y. Jang, H. Gwon, J. Kim, Y.H. Kim, M.D. Lima, R.O. Robles, X.L. Ray, H. Baughman, K. Kang, *Adv. Mater.* 25 (2013) 1348–1352.
- [27] H.-G. Jung, J. Hassoun, J.-B. Park, Y.-K. Sun, B. Scrosati, *Nat. Chem.* 4 (2012) 579–585.
- [28] Y. Qin, J. Lu, P. Du, Z. Chen, Y. Ren, T. Wu, J.T. Miller, J. Wen, D.J. Miller, Z. Zhang, K. Amine, *Energy Environ. Sci.* 6 (2013) 519–531.